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FAX: 301-402-0824	REQUEST NO.:	NIH-10071778
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NIH	Fiche to Paper	Journal
TITLE:	NATURE	
PUBLISHER/PLACE:	Nature Publishing Group London :	
VOLUME/ISSUE/PAGES:	1993 Dec 16;366(6456):654-63	654-63
DATE:	1993	
AUTHOR OF ARTICLE:	Noel JP; Hamm HE; Sigler PB;	
TITLE OF ARTICLE:	The 2.2 A crystal structure of transducin-alpha co	
ISSN:	0028-0836	
OTHER NOS/LETTERS:	Library reports holding volume or year 0410462 8259210	
SOURCE:	PubMed	
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. We thank J. Goldstein, P. Polakis, S. Powers, M. Ruggieri, J. Hancock, G. Bollag, A. Bernards, J. Mulligan, A. Murray, S. Ferro-Novick and P. Casey for helpful discussions and providing data before publication.

## ARTICLES

## The 2.2 Å crystal structure of transducin- $\alpha$ complexed with GTP $\gamma$ S

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**The 2.2 Å crystal structure of activated rod transducin, G $_{\alpha}$ ·GTP $\gamma$ S, shows the bound GTP $\gamma$ S molecule occluded deep in a cleft between a domain structurally homologous to small GTPases and a helical domain unique to heterotrimeric G proteins. The structure, when combined with biochemical and genetic studies, suggests: how an activated receptor might open this cleft to allow nucleotide exchange; a mechanism for GTP-induced changes in effector and receptor binding surfaces; and a mechanism for GTPase activity not evident from previous data.**

HERE we describe the three-dimensional structure of the activated  $\alpha$ -subunit of a heterotrimeric ( $\alpha\beta\gamma$ ) G protein, namely the complex of transducin- $\alpha$  with the GTP analogue GTP $\gamma$ S. The model and the mechanisms inferred from it were derived from an X-ray crystal structure refined to a resolution of 2.2 Å. The model provides a stereochemical context for the extensive biochemical and mutagenic studies<sup>1</sup> on the highly homologous family of G-protein-coupled signal transduction systems.

Each heterotrimeric G protein is functionally coupled to a specific seven-helix transmembrane receptor, but all share a common mechanism by which information is transduced from the receptor through a GTP-activated  $\alpha$ -subunit or a free  $\beta\gamma$  heterodimer to specific downstream effectors. GTP's  $\gamma$ -phosphate acts as a molecular switch that relays information in the form of a conformational change. This conformational change leads to a decreased affinity for both the receptor and the  $\beta\gamma$  heterodimer,

and an increased specific affinity for and activation of an effector enzyme or channel which ultimately leads to a change in the cellular concentration of a second messenger such as a cyclic nucleotide, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, inositol phosphates, or diacylglycerol. The released  $\beta\gamma$  subunit can itself lead to the activation or modulation of some effectors<sup>2,3</sup>. A GTPase-controlled timing mechanism inherent in all  $\alpha$ -subunits and, in some cases, modulated by other proteins<sup>4,5</sup> returns the GTP-activated  $\alpha$ -subunit to the inactive GDP-bound heterotrimer.

In the vertebrate light response, inactive heterotrimeric transducin (G $_{\alpha\beta\gamma}$ ·GDP) binds the photoactivated rhodopsin (metarhodopsin II) and releases GDP. GTP binds firmly to the  $\alpha$ -subunit of the receptor-bound transducin causing G $_{\alpha}$ ·GTP to separate from both the receptor and the  $\beta\gamma$  heterodimer. The G $_{\alpha}$ ·GTP complex activates its effector, cGMP-specific phosphodiesterase ( $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$  cGMP-PDE) by binding to its inhibitory  $\gamma$ -subunit(s).

Activated  $\alpha\beta$  cGMP-PDE lowers the concentration of

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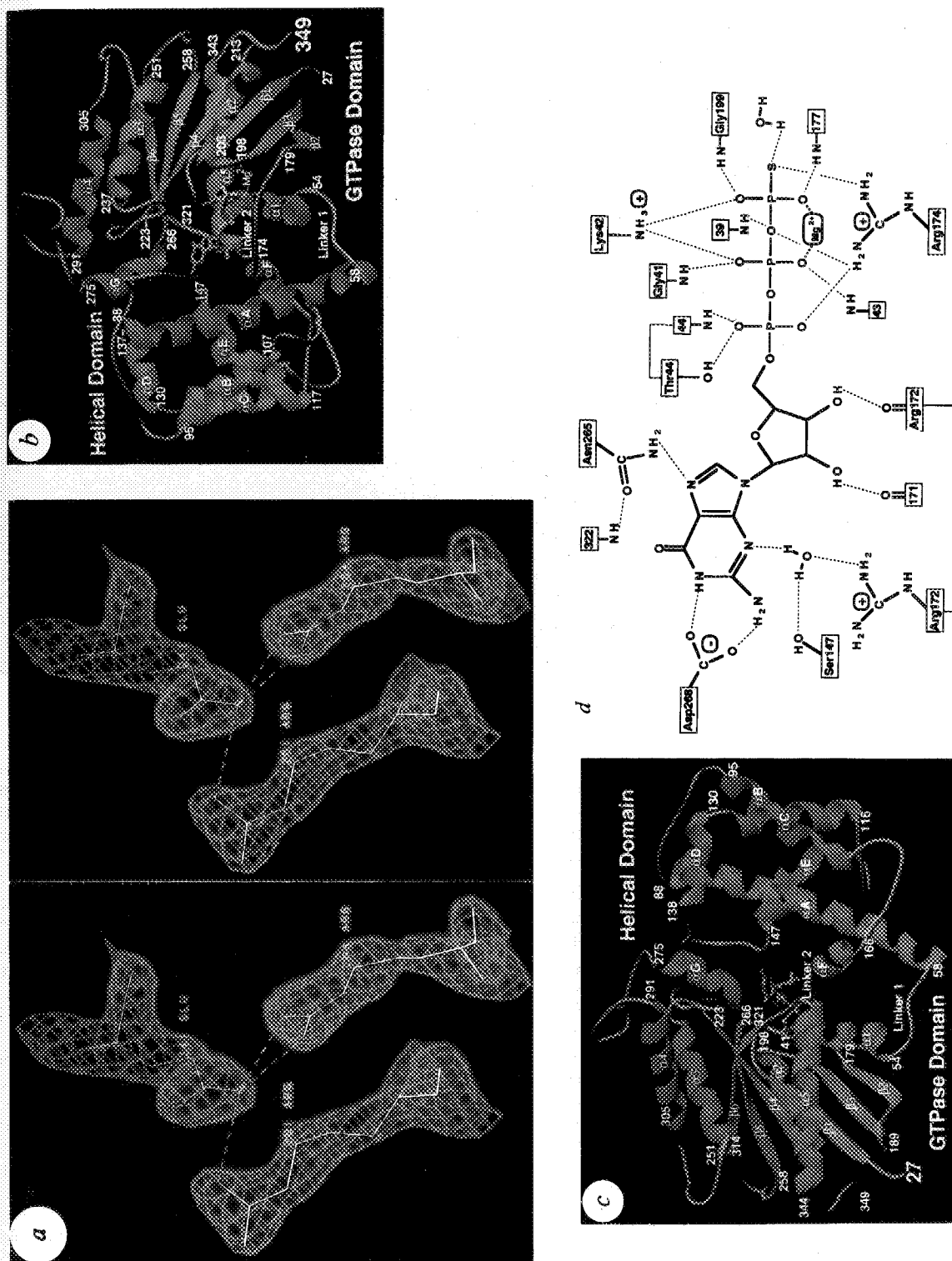
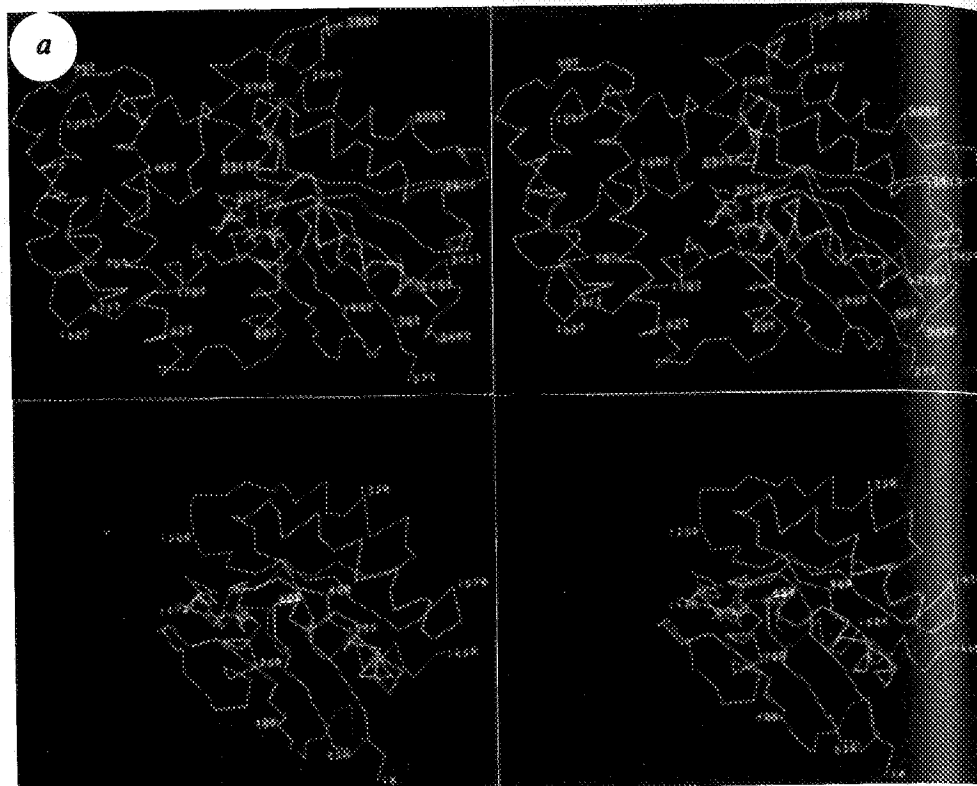


FIG. 1 The overall structure of (gamma-25)GTP gamma S. *a*, Representative electron density. The map was calculated at 2.2 Å resolution with  $(2F_o - F_c)$  amplitudes and model phases and is contoured at  $2.0\sigma$ . This example illustrates electrostatic linkages that convey the signal to the effector binding region (see Fig. 4a, *b*, *c* for details.) *b*, Ribbon drawing (Ribbons<sup>43</sup>). The gamma-phosphate appears yellow while the rest of the nucleotide is lavender. The catalytically essential  $Mg^{2+}$  is represented as a cyan sphere. For clarity, labels for the secondary structural elements of the core GTPase domain reflect the convention used to describe Ras<sup>17</sup>. The seven additional helices which are unique in the GTP gamma S structure are labelled A through G. Although the crystallized construct spans residues 26 through 350, the crystallographically observable N and C termini are Ala 27 and Leu 349. *c*, Alternative view of the overall fold of the complex rotated 170° around a vertical axis from the view in (*b*). *d*, Schematic illustration of the major interactions securing GTP gamma S in the nucleotide binding cleft. Hydrogen bonds are denoted by dashed lines. Only the interactions observed in all three complexes are shown. All of the figures were constructed from the coordinates of one of the complexes, but they are representative of the other two. (The r.m.s. deviation of all atoms for protomer A to B, 0.95 Å for protomer A to C and 1.03 Å for protomer B to C. The r.m.s. deviation for backbone atoms only is 0.50 Å for A to B, 0.42 Å for A to C and 0.44 Å for B to C.)

FIG. 2 Primary and tertiary structural alignment of  $(-25)G_{\alpha}\cdot GTP\gamma S$  with representative GTPases. a, Stereoview of the  $\alpha$  carbon trace and bound nucleotides for  $G_{\alpha}\cdot GTP\gamma S$  and Ras $\cdot$ GMP.PNP<sup>12</sup> in the same orientation.  $G_{\alpha}\cdot GTP\gamma S$  appears in light blue and residue numbers are appended with T. Ras $\cdot$ GMP.PNP appears in pink and its sequence numbers are appended with R. The root mean square difference in backbone positions (excluding surface loops) between the GTPase domains of  $G_{\alpha}$  and Ras $\cdot$ GMP.PNP<sup>12</sup> is 1.85 Å. b, Primary sequence alignment. The observed secondary structural elements as deduced from  $G_{\alpha}$  are indicated below the sequences. The location of functional domains are indicated above the sequences as are the sequence numbers for  $G_{\alpha}$ . Regions considered as 'inserts' in the GTPase domain are included above the aligned sequences. The amino acids are denoted by their one letter codes. Gaps in the aligned sequences are indicated by dots. Sources of sequence information: bovine  $G_{\alpha}$ <sup>44</sup>, bovine  $G_{\alpha}$ <sup>45</sup>, bovine  $G_{\alpha}$ <sup>46</sup>, mouse  $G_{\alpha}$ <sup>47</sup>, bovine  $G_{\alpha}$ <sup>48</sup>, bovine rod  $G_{\alpha}$ <sup>49</sup>, Ras<sup>50</sup>, *E. coli* EF-Tu<sup>51</sup>.



cGMP, which closes cGMP-gated cation channels and hyperpolarizes the retinal rod cell, thereby generating the nerve impulse.  $G_{\alpha}\cdot GDP$  releases PDE- $\gamma$  leading to a reformation of both the inactive cGMP-PDE  $\alpha\beta\gamma_2$  complex and the inactive  $G_{\alpha\beta\gamma}\cdot GDP$  heterotrimer which is primed for reactivation by metarhodopsin II (refs 6–8).

### Structure determination and refinement

A 325-amino-acid fragment of bovine retinal rod cell  $G_{\alpha}\cdot GTP\gamma S$  lacking residues 1–25 was obtained by proteolysis of the full-length GTP $\gamma S$  complex with endoproteinase lysC (ref. 9). Although the removal of the N terminus results in a loss of  $\beta\gamma$  binding, the GTP $\gamma S$  complex fully retains its capacity to activate its target enzyme cGMP-PDE. The best crystals (space group P2<sub>1</sub>) were grown at  $-12.5^{\circ}C$  in high concentrations of cacodylate buffer and  $CaCl_2$  and contained three complexes per asymmetric unit. Phases from two heavy-atom derivatives of marginal quality were substantially improved by a solvent-flattening procedure employing maximum entropy routines (Z. Otwinowski) and subsequent averaging of the non-crystallographically related density in the asymmetric unit (Table 1).

A model for each of the three non-crystallographically related complexes was built into the final averaged map with the program FRODO (ref. 10) and refined with XPLOR 3.1 (ref. 11) to an *R*-factor of 19.0% for all data, and 17.8% for data greater than  $2\sigma$  between 6.0 and 2.2 Å resolution. The free *R*-factor for a randomly omitted subset (10%) of data (no cut-off) was 30.4 and 28.7% for data greater than  $2.0\sigma$ . The average deviation from standard values is 0.011 Å in bond distance and  $1.8^{\circ}$  in bond angle; the  $\Phi$ - $\Psi$  plot showed all residues except for Asn 54 and some glycines within  $10^{\circ}$  of the allowed regions. A representative segment of the unaveraged electron density map is shown in Fig. 1a.

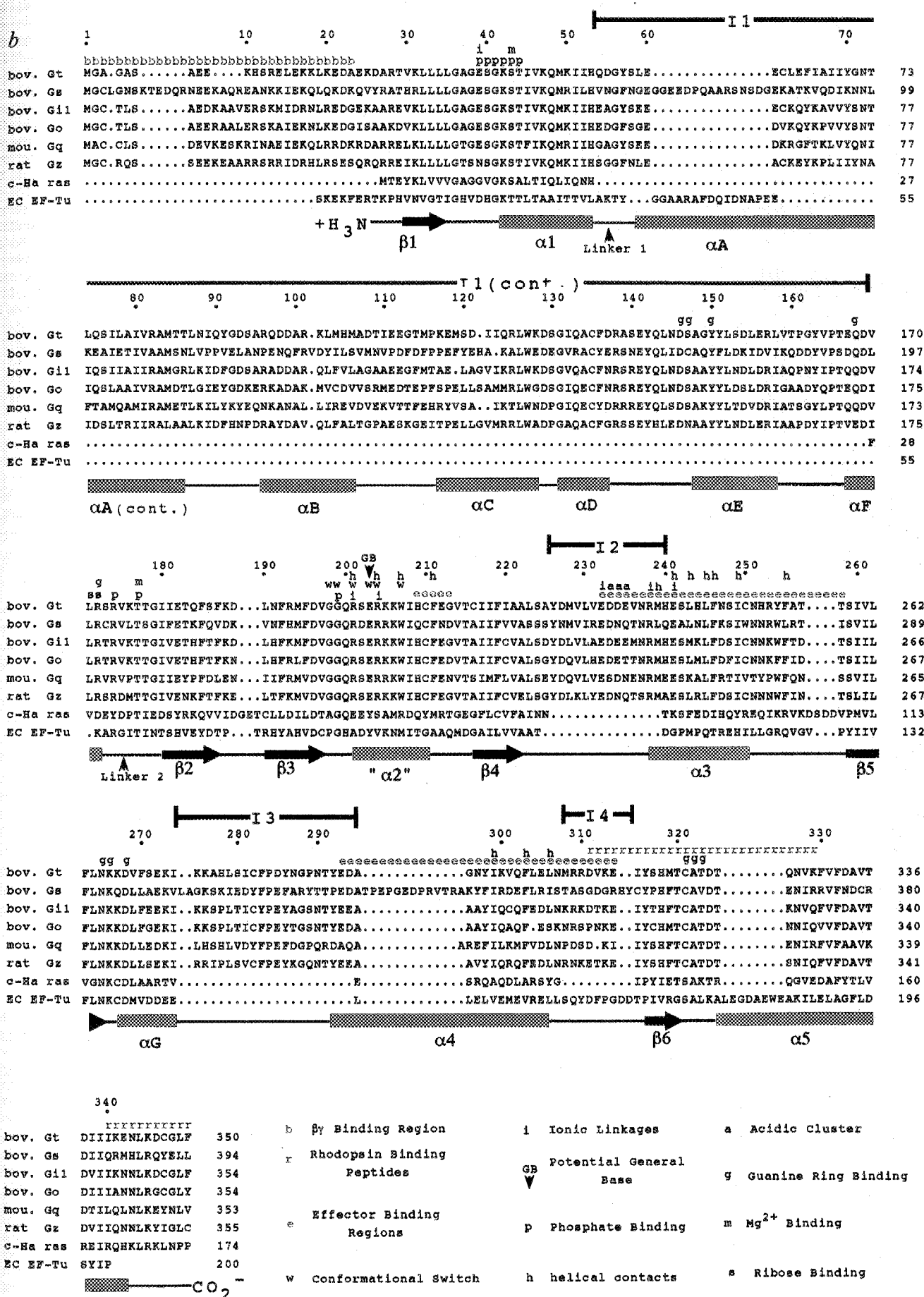
### The domain architecture

The  $(-25)G_{\alpha}\cdot GTP\gamma S$  complex consists of two easily delineated domains (Fig. 1b and c) flanking a deep guanine-nucleotide-

binding cleft (Fig. 1d). One domain is a highly conserved GTPase domain that is structurally similar to the  $\alpha\beta$  fold of the c-H-ras protein, p21<sup>Ha-ras</sup> or Ras<sup>12</sup> (Fig. 2a), even though the sequence identity is low (19.0%; Fig. 2b). This domain, also seen in the protein synthesis elongation factor EF-Tu (ref. 13), consists of a six-stranded  $\beta$ -sheet ( $\beta 1$ – $\beta 6$ ) surrounded by a set of five helices ( $\alpha 1$ – $\alpha 5$ ). The other domain is a highly helical domain unique to heterotrimeric G proteins. Altogether, there are four differences between the  $(-25)G_{\alpha}\cdot GTP\gamma S$  complex and a consensus GTPase fold as represented by Ras: one is the large helical domain just mentioned (II); the other three occur as sequence insertions within loops of the GTPase domain (I2, I3, I4).

The highly helical domain (II) spans residues 59–172 (Fig. 2b). It is connected to the GTPase domain by two polypeptide segments, hereafter referred to as linker 1 and linker 2. Linker 1, spanning residues 54–58, follows  $\alpha 1$ . Linker 2, spanning residues 173–179, immediately precedes  $\beta 2$ . The helical domain and the GTPase domain clamp down upon and completely bury the GTP $\gamma S$  molecule and its associated  $Mg^{2+}$  ion. EF-Tu (refs 13–15) and the smaller GTPase, Ras<sup>12</sup>, which both lack this helical domain, bind the nucleotide in a partially exposed surface cleft. The inaccessibility of GTP $\gamma S$  in  $G_{\alpha}$  suggests that in order to exchange guanine nucleotides there must be a conformational change that opens the cleft. The helical domain encompasses a central  $\alpha$ -helical scaffold of 28 residues which supports five smaller helices through hydrophobic interactions. The seemingly rigid internal structure of the helical domain suggests that conformational changes in the linkers would be amplified into 'en bloc' movements of the helical domain, making it a lid on the nucleotide binding site.

Insert I2 resides between  $\beta 4$  and  $\alpha 3$  and makes critical ionic contacts to both the conserved phosphate-binding loop<sup>16</sup> and the so-called switch II region<sup>17</sup>, residues 198–215. We will invoke these interactions when we consider a mechanism for the propagation of a conformational change from the  $\gamma$ -phosphate binding region to the effector (PDE- $\gamma$ ) binding loops. The third



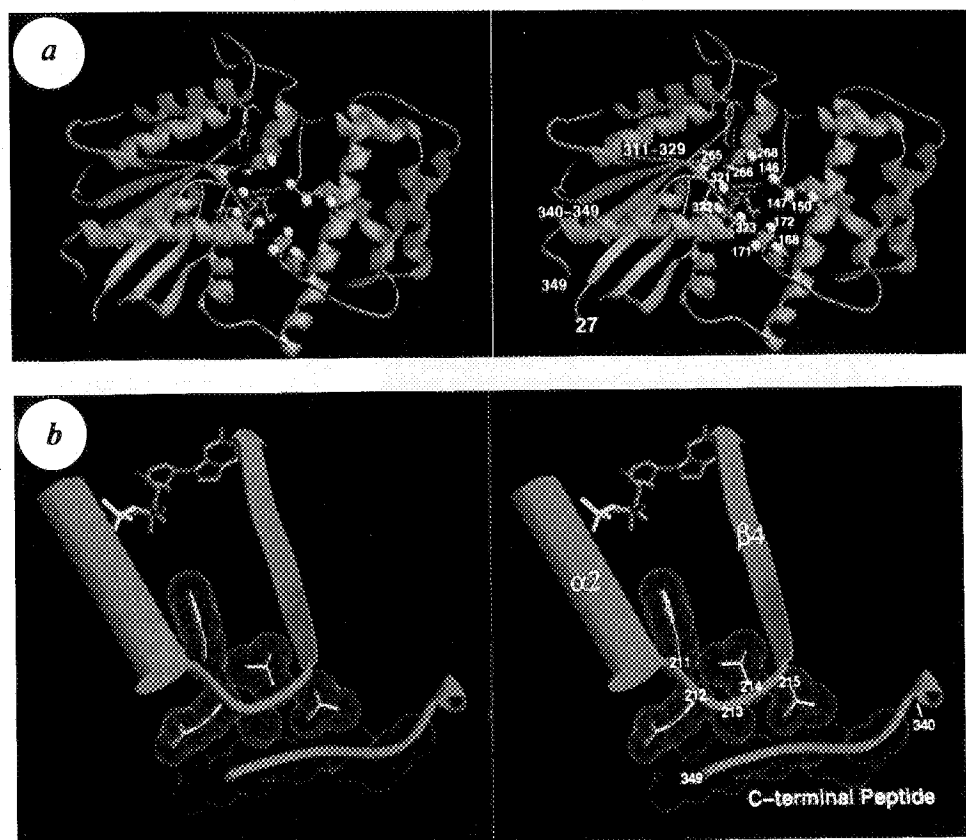


FIG. 3 Linkage between nucleoside binding sites and the receptor interaction surface. *a*, Stereoview of the proposed receptor binding face of  $G_{\alpha t}$ . Regions involved in receptor binding, 311-329 and 340-350 (ref. 19), and segments participating in nucleoside binding are coloured in light blue. The yellow spheres denote relevant contacts, direct or supporting, to the nucleoside. *b*, Stereoview of the van der Waals contact surface formed between the GTP regulated  $\alpha 2/\beta 4$  loop side chains and the backbone of the rhodopsin binding C-terminal peptide. The C-terminal backbone depicted (light blue) spans residues 340-349 while the van der Waals surface of this backbone (red dot surface) encompasses residues 343 to 349. *c*, Stereoview of the cluster of residues highlighted as yellow spheres in *a*. Cys 321 fixes the side chain of Thr 323 which forms a favourable van der Waals surface with the guanine ring. Ala 322's backbone amide positions the side chain of Asn 265 which, in turn, donates a hydrogen bond to the N7 nitrogen of the base. Asp 268 accepts hydrogen bonds from the N1 and N2 nitrogens of guanine. Lys 266 provides a second van der

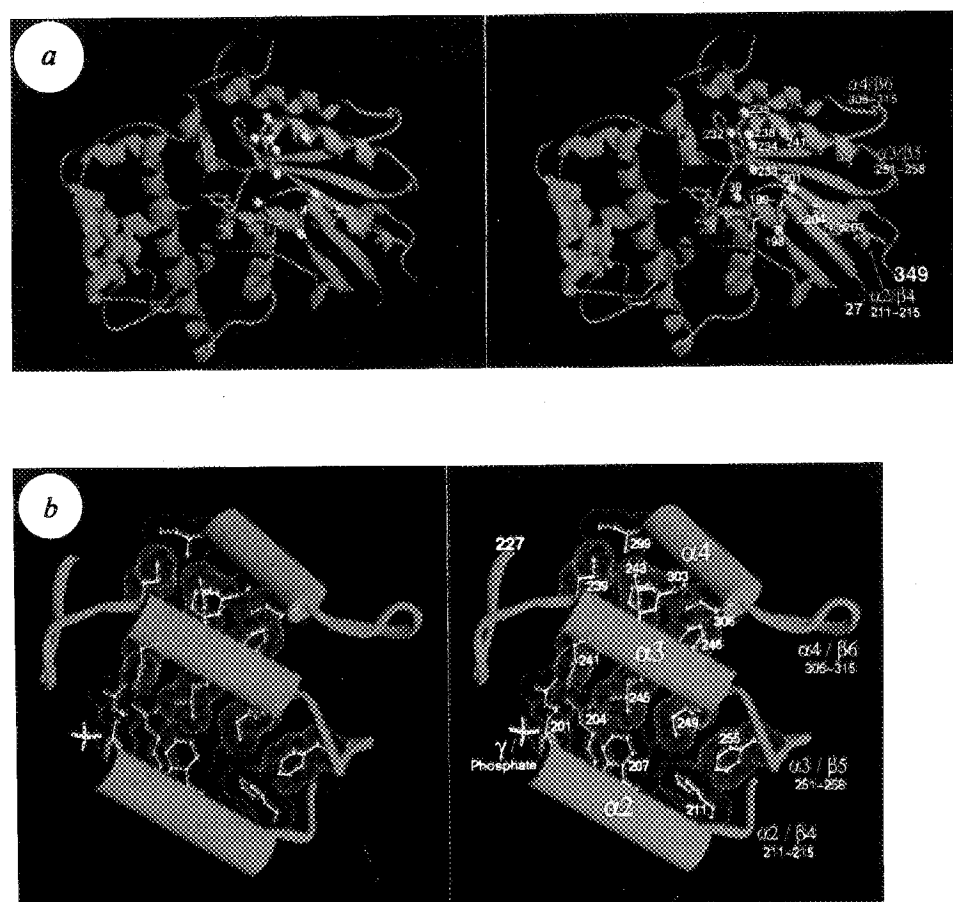
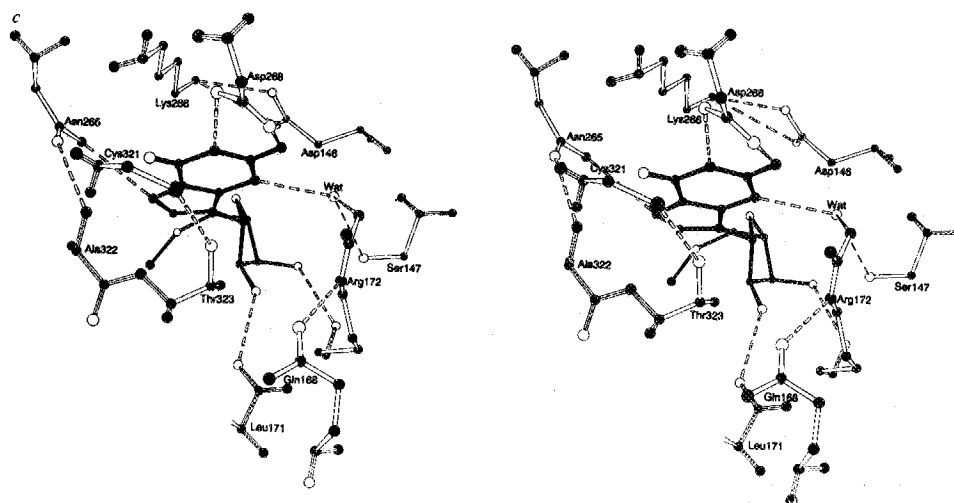


FIG. 4 Linkage between  $\gamma$ -phosphate binding and effector interaction surfaces. *a*, Stereoview highlighting in light blue regions involved in the functional coupling between GTP binding (peptide Gly 198/Gly 199) and the effector binding surfaces ( $\alpha 2/\beta 4$ ,  $\alpha 3/\beta 5$ ,  $\alpha 4/\beta 6$ ) mediated through  $\alpha 2$ ,  $\alpha 3$  and  $\alpha 4$ . In addition, a fourth region comprising an acidic cluster of residues, Glu 232, Asp 233, Asp 234 and Glu 235 is shown and comprises a fourth effector binding surface (J. Mills *et al.*, in preparation). In addition to the acidic cluster, the yellow spheres emphasize specific contacts between the



van der Waals surface for the guanine ring and is locked in place by the side chain carboxylate of Asp 146 of the helical domain. Both the 2' and 3' ribose hydroxyls donate hydrogen bonds to the backbone carbonyls of residues 171 and 172. The N3 of the guanine ring participates in a water mediated contact fixed in place by the side chains of Ser 147 and Arg 172. Gln 168 and Tyr 150 (not shown) buttress the side chain of Arg 172 through hydrogen bonds and van der Waals forces, respectively. The nucleoside bonds are filled and the protein's backbone bonds are partially filled. Hydrogen bonds are represented by broken bonds. C atoms are black, N, P and S atoms are partially filled and O atoms are white.



major insert, I3, is situated between  $\beta 5$  and  $\alpha 4$  and encompasses  $\alpha G$ . The fourth, I4, is a small insert from residues 309 to 314 connecting  $\alpha 4$  and  $\beta 6$  and plays a key role in effector recognition.

### Guanine-nucleotide binding

**Triphosphate binding.** The triphosphate portion of GTP $\gamma$ S coordinates an essential Mg $^{2+}$  ion and accepts hydrogen bonds from the backbone amides of Glu 39, Gly 41, Lys 42, Ser 43, Thr 177 and Gly 199, and the side chains of Lys 42 and Arg 174. The Mg $^{2+}$  ion is coordinated in an octahedral arrangement in which two ligands are non-bridging oxygens of the  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -phosphates, two ligands are the side-chain hydroxyl groups of Ser 43 and Thr 177, and two opposing ligands are water molecules that are secured by hydrogen bonds to the side chains of Ser 43, Thr 177 and Asp 196, and a non-bridging oxygen on the  $\alpha$ -phosphate.

The binding of the backbone amides of Ser 43 and Thr 177 to the  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -phosphates positions the side chains to interact with the Mg $^{2+}$  ion and with its associated water ligands. The side chain of Arg 174, which is the site for GTPase inhibiting ADP-ribosylation by cholera toxin $^{18}$ , is hydrogen-bonded to the  $\gamma$ -thiophosphate's sulphur, the bridging oxygen between the  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -phosphate, and a non-bridging oxygen on the  $\alpha$ -phosphate (Fig. 1d).

**Nucleoside binding.** The 2' and 3' hydroxyls of the sugar donate hydrogen bonds to the backbone carbonyls of Leu 171 and Arg 172 in  $\alpha F$ . The guanine ring is bound by an interaction that

is unique to the G $_{12\alpha}$  structure, in which the N3 ring nitrogen forms water-mediated interactions with the side chains of Ser 147 and Arg 172. It is noteworthy that the nucleoside contacts (Ser 147, Leu 171 and Arg 172) and the phosphate contacts (Arg 174 and Thr 177) arise from either the helical domain or linker 2, which, as will be discussed in a later section, has important implications for receptor-regulated nucleotide exchange. In addition to these guanine interactions that are unique to G proteins, a series of interactions conserved in the GTPase superfamily further stabilizes the guanine base through hydrogen bonds from side chains of Asn 265 to the N7 ring nitrogen and Asp 268 to the N1 ring nitrogen and exocyclic 2-amine (Fig. 1d). Finally, the guanine ring is sandwiched by van der Waals contacts between the methylene carbons of Lys 266 and the methyl group of Thr 323. Lys 266 is well stabilized by a salt bridge to Asp 146 of the helical domain, and Thr 323 is also locked in place by a supporting hydrogen bond with the side chain of Cys 321. A mechanistically important feature of this system is the elegant manner in which interactions with one portion of the nucleotide support contacts with another. It is likely that these tightly coupled interactions potentiate a highly cooperative receptor-mediated disassembly of the elements that so strongly secure GDP and GTP in the nucleotide-binding cleft.

### Rhodopsin binding and nucleotide exchange

**The C-terminal receptor-binding site.** A peptide designed to mimic the C-terminal 11 residues of G $_{12\alpha}$  not only competes with G $_{12\beta\gamma}$  binding to photoactivated rhodopsin, but stabilizes rho-

phosphate binding loop (Glu 39), the  $\alpha 2$  switch region (Gly 198–Trp 207), and the acidic loop (Glu 232–Glu 241). **b**, Stereoview of the  $\alpha 2/\alpha 3/\alpha 4$  interface. The dot surface (van der Waals) emphasizes the stereochemical coupling between the conformationally regulated  $\alpha 2$  helix and  $\alpha 3$  and  $\alpha 4$ . **c**, Detailed stereochemical view of the coupling between the  $\gamma$ -phosphate binding region (Glu 39, Gly 198 and Gly 199), the conformationally regulated  $\alpha 2$  helix (Arg 201, Arg 204 and Trp 207) and the I2 loop (Glu 232, Arg 238 and Glu 241).

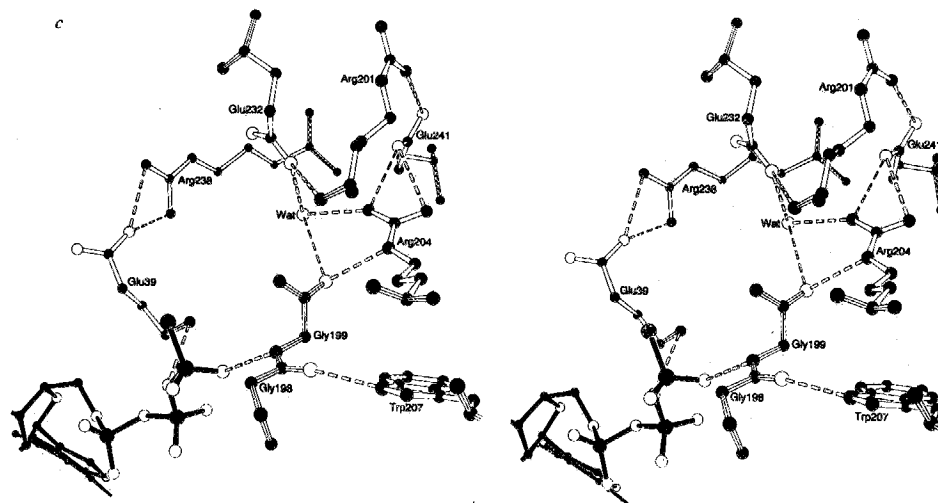


TABLE 1 Experimental data on crystal structure determination and refinement

	Quality of MIR phases								Total
Resolution limit (Å)	12.6	8.4	6.3	5.0	4.2	3.6	3.2	2.8	
CH <sub>3</sub> -Hg(OOC-CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>									
Number of reflections	280	760	1,478	2,404	3,571	4,893	3,869	—	17,255
Phasing power	2.53	2.29	2.49	2.05	1.33	1.19	1.37	—	1.49
SmCl <sub>2</sub>									
Number of reflections	242	758	1,477	2,405	3,573	4,946	6,612	8,264	28,277
Phasing power	2.05	1.04	1.03	0.78	0.47	0.36	0.33	0.31	0.49
Mean figure of merit	0.76	0.79	0.74	0.67	0.55	0.45	0.33	0.19	0.41
Native data and refinement									
Resolution limit (Å)	5.41	3.76	3.17	2.84	2.61	2.44	2.31	2.20	Total
Number of reflections	3,977	7,834	7,853	7,803	7,655	7,507	6,101	4,559	53,289
Predicted	4,019	7,839	7,863	7,835	7,820	7,801	7,763	7,792	58,732
R <sub>sym</sub>	0.026	0.029	0.037	0.049	0.067	0.094	0.108	0.135	0.039
R-factor (all data)	0.173	0.121	0.157	0.205	0.246	0.277	0.304	0.330	0.190
R-factor (>2.0σ)	0.172	0.121	0.155	0.197	0.231	0.248	0.255	0.268	0.178
Free R-factor (all data)									0.304
Free R-factor (>2.0σ)									0.287

$R_{\text{sym}} = \sum_h \langle |I_h - I_h| \rangle / \sum_h I_h$  where  $\langle |I_h - I_h| \rangle$  is the average absolute deviation of reflections  $I_h$  from the average  $I_h$  of its symmetry and Friedel related equivalents. Phasing power is  $\sum |F_h| / \sum |F_h^0| \exp(i\Phi_h) + F_h^0 - |F_h^0|$ , where  $F_h^0$  = heavy atom structure factor and  $|F_h^0|$  and  $|F_h^{\text{ph}}|$  are observed amplitudes for the protein and heavy-atom derivative, respectively,  $\Phi_h$  is the calculated phase, and the sum is over all observations. Figure of merit is  $\int P(\Phi) \exp(i\Phi) d\Phi / \int P(\Phi) d\Phi$ , where  $P$  is the probability distribution of  $\Phi$ , the phase angle. G<sub>12a</sub>·GTPγS was purified from photolysed bovine rod outer segments (ROS) by selective extraction with GTPγS and Mg<sup>2+</sup> as described<sup>9</sup>. (-25)G<sub>12a</sub>·GTPγS, residues 26–350, was prepared from full-length G<sub>12a</sub>·GTPγS by overnight proteolysis with endoproteinase LysC (Boehringer Mannheim) at 4 °C in 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and purified on a Mono-Q (Pharmacia) column with a gradient of 0–225 mM NaCl in 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 0.5 mM DTT. The fractions containing G<sub>12a</sub>·GTPγS were concentrated and stored at –80 °C in 5 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 25 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 40% (v/v) glycerol at ~40 mg ml<sup>-1</sup>. The purified protein produced a single band on an overloaded silver-stained denaturing SDS gel and the N-terminal sequence was verified by electroblotting on to polyvinylidene fluoride (Millipore) membrane and sequenced (K. Stone, HHMI, Yale University). Diffraction quality crystals were grown at –12.5 °C from microseeded hanging drops (3–5 μl) containing 20–25 mg ml<sup>-1</sup> protein, 166 mM sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 6.0, 223 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 25 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 20% (v/v) glycerol, 3.33% (w/v) PEG 8000 over reservoirs of 5% (w/v) PEG 8000, 250 mM sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 6.0, 350 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 25 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 30% (v/v) glycerol. Crystals appeared overnight and grew typically to 0.1 mm × 0.1 mm × 0.2 mm over several weeks. They were stabilized at 4 °C in 15% (w/v) PEG 8000, 50 mM sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 6.0, 25 mM β-mercaptoethanol, 30% (v/v) glycerol. The crystals belong to space group P2<sub>1</sub> with  $a = 74.5$  Å,  $b = 108.3$  Å,  $c = 79.0$  Å,  $\beta = 112.3^\circ$ . The Sm<sup>2+</sup> and CH<sub>3</sub>-Hg<sup>+</sup> derivative crystals were equilibrated with the stabilizer containing 10 mM SmCl<sub>2</sub> or 0.05 mM methyl mercuric acetate (no β-mercaptoethanol), respectively. Parent data and the Sm<sup>2+</sup> derivative data were each collected from single quick-frozen crystals (–150 °C) on the RAXIS II, processed with DENZO (Z. Otwinowski), and scaled with SCALEPACK (Z. Otwinowski). The CH<sub>3</sub>-Hg<sup>+</sup> derivative data were collected on a Siemens Xentronics area detector, processed with XDS<sup>38,39</sup>, and scaled with SCALEPACK. The parent and derivative data sets were placed on the same relative scale with SCALEPACK. Heavy-atom positions were determined initially from a combination of isomorphous and anomalous difference Patterson maps, improved with cross-difference Fourier maps, and refined with ML-PHARE<sup>40</sup>. A total of 21 Sm sites and 12 CH<sub>3</sub>-Hg sites were located in the asymmetric unit. The MIR phases were improved sequentially by solvent flattening employing maximum entropy routines (Z. Otwinowski) and non-crystallographic averaging with the program SQUASH<sup>41</sup>. The initial superimposition matrices relating the three (-25)G<sub>12a</sub>·GTPγS complexes were determined from the positions of the three triphosphates fit from the MIR map and three CH<sub>3</sub>-Hg<sup>+</sup> binding sites and refined in SQUASH. The three complexes are related by an approximate 3<sub>1</sub> screw axis. The averaging envelope encompassing one of the complexes was constructed manually by filling a clearly delineated protomer envelope with a set of randomly placed dummy atoms with FRODO<sup>42</sup> and converted into the CCP4 map format with ATOMSTOMASK (J. Friedman). A nearly complete model for each of the three non-crystallographically related complexes was built into the final averaged map with FRODO and refined by simulated annealing with XPLOR 3.1 (ref. 11) starting at 4,000 K (0.3 fs time step). The non-crystallographic symmetry was loosely restrained during the first two rounds of refinement at 2.8 Å and 2.5 Å resolution. Local errors were corrected with the aid of the original experimentally phased maps and model phased (2Fo – Fc) and (Fo – Fc) maps. All three models were then refined at 2.2 Å with tightly restrained neighbouring B-factors (r.m.s. deviations in B-factor between bonded atoms is 1.75 Å<sup>2</sup>) and no local symmetry restraints. Water sites were gradually and systematically added to the structure with the aid of suitably contoured (Fo – Fc) maps during the later stages of refinement and accepted if they (1) reappeared with strong density in (2Fo – Fc) maps, (2) participated in at least one hydrogen-bonded interaction, and (3) refined to an isotropic B-factor of no more than 70 Å<sup>2</sup> with unit occupancy. The free R-factor<sup>42</sup> consistently decreased throughout the refinement. The current model lacks the N-terminal Asp 26 for all three complexes, residues 343–350 in two of the complexes, and Phe 350 in the third. In addition to the polypeptide backbone, the current model contains three GTPγS molecules, three Mg<sup>2+</sup> ions, six cacodylate-modified cysteines (Cys 61 and Cys 210) modelled as single As atoms and 826 solvent molecules modelled as water.

dopsin's active Meta II photochemical state<sup>19</sup> (50% inhibitory concentration, IC<sub>50</sub> = 0.04 mM<sup>20</sup>). In addition, work with G<sub>12a</sub>/G<sub>12a</sub> chimaeras has established a critical role for the C terminus in specifying the α-subunit's binding to its cognate receptor<sup>21</sup>. Finally, antibodies against the C terminus of G<sub>12a</sub> (ref. 22), and ADP-ribosylation by pertussis toxin of a cysteine side chain<sup>23,24</sup> four residues from the C terminus, uncouple many G proteins from their receptors. In two of the molecules represented in the asymmetric unit, the final eight residues are somewhat disordered. In a third complex, the C-terminal residues 343–349 of G<sub>12a</sub> can be seen to make van der Waals contacts with the α2/β4 loop, residues 212–215 (Fig. 3a and b). This segment is part of the switch II region (residues 198–215), which in G<sub>12a</sub> is chemically coupled through Gly 198 and Gly 199 to the terminal phosphate of GTP, and whose conformation is known to undergo a

major conformational rearrangement upon binding GTP from altered proteolysis<sup>9,25,26</sup>, from fluorescence changes of the α2 residue Trp207 (ref. 27), and from the structures of activated and unactivated Ras<sup>17</sup>. We speculate with appropriate caution that the change in α2 and the α2/β4 loop can be propagated to the abutting C-terminal residues 343–349 through direct interactions, thereby coupling the nature of the bound nucleotide to the specific affinity between G<sub>12a</sub> and its cognate receptor.

**Receptor catalysed GDP/GTP exchange.** G<sub>12a</sub>, Ras and EF-Tu differ in their affinity for guanine nucleotides. Exchange factors accelerate nucleotide exchange in both EF-Tu<sup>28</sup> and Ras<sup>29</sup>, but a significant basal exchange rate persists in their absence. Exchange does not occur for transducin in the absence of activated rhodopsin. The structural feature that distinguishes G<sub>12a</sub> from both Ras and EF-Tu is the large helical domain that forms



one wall of the nucleotide-binding cleft and thereby occludes the nucleotide. Activated rhodopsin probably opens the nucleotide-binding cleft.

The stereochemical links between the receptor-binding surface and the elements that clamp the nucleotide in the receptor-free heterotrimeric  $G_{\alpha}$ s are highlighted in Fig. 3a and c. In addition to the previously described C-terminal peptide, a second peptide spanning  $G_{\alpha}$  residues 311–329 has also been shown to bind to photoactivated rhodopsin by competition assays<sup>19</sup>. Residues 320–323 of this peptide contribute directly to nucleoside binding through a van der Waals contact with the guanine ring. This segment is stereochemically linked to the nucleotide-binding cleft as illustrated in Fig. 3a and c, and presumably modulates nucleotide affinity in a receptor-regulated fashion.

In addition to the conserved nucleoside-binding elements of the GTPase domain, the present structure now shows the unique contributions to nucleotide binding and most likely to receptor-regulated exchange that arise from the helical domain (Fig. 3c). These binding contacts are structurally interdependent so that a receptor-triggered structural change can initiate a cooperative unravelling of the interactions that secure the nucleotide. Following release of GDP, GTP binds to the open nucleotide-binding cleft. As already described, the newly bound  $\gamma$ -phosphate initiates a conformational change in the switch II region. This potentially alters the structure of the abutting C-terminal 5–10 residues, ultimately leading to dissociation from photoactivated rhodopsin and the  $\beta\gamma$  heterodimer.

### Effector activation

$G_{\alpha}$ ·GTP binds and activates cGMP-PDE by displacing the enzyme's inhibitory  $\gamma$ -subunits<sup>7</sup>. Two separate studies implicate the  $G_{\alpha}$  surface loops ( $\alpha 2/\beta 4$ ,  $\alpha 3/\beta 5$  and  $\alpha 4/\beta 6$ ) in effector binding and activation. All of these loops form a contiguous patch of exposed residues (Fig. 4a). Peptides designed to mimic the  $\alpha 3/\beta 5$  loop and the  $\alpha 4/\beta 6$  loop associate strongly with PDE- $\gamma$ . In addition, the  $\alpha 4/\beta 6$  loop peptide activates cGMP-PDE<sup>30</sup>. Work with  $G_{\alpha}$ /G $\alpha$  chimaeras also establishes a critical role for all three loops in the control of adenylyl cyclase activity<sup>31</sup>. The crystal structure of  $G_{\alpha}$ ·GTP $\gamma$ S suggests how GTP might induce a structural change in these three effector-binding loops. The crystal structure also provides a structural basis for a recently implicated fourth effector binding region of  $G_{\alpha}$  (J. Mills *et al.*, manuscript in preparation).

**Structural consequences of GTP binding.** A change in proteolysis sensitivity indicates that the switch II region (residues 198–215) undergoes a distinct transition, probably from a flexible structure to a well ordered helix upon binding GTP. Two  $\alpha 2$  residues, Arg 204 and Trp 207, are protected from tryptic<sup>25</sup> and chymotryptic<sup>26</sup> hydrolysis, respectively, in the  $G_{\alpha}$ ·GTP $\gamma$ S complex but not in the  $G_{\alpha}$ ·GDP complex. Moreover, GTP/GDP exchange alters the fluorescence of Trp 207. Trp 207 of the switch II region is coupled to the  $\gamma$ -phosphate through the peptide between two glycine residues, both of which are conserved in the heterotrimeric G-protein family; the backbone amide nitrogen of the mutationally sensitive Gly 199 (ref. 32) contacts the  $\gamma$ -phosphate while the carbonyl of that peptide (Gly 198) accepts a hydrogen bond from the heterocyclic —NH— of Trp 207. Thus, the first two turns of  $\alpha 2$  are stabilized by interaction with the  $\gamma$ -phosphate. This tandem of conserved glycines may provide the necessary freedom for a potential conformational change in  $\alpha 2$  upon loss of these interactions with the  $\gamma$ -phosphate. In addition, we predict that in the GDP-bound state the negative side chain of Glu 203 (like Asp 86 of EF-Tu-GDP<sup>13–15</sup>) will occupy the positively charged pocket vacated by the  $\gamma$ -phosphate and will be expelled upon GTP binding.

The GDP/GTP-induced changes in  $\alpha 2$  provide a direct link to changes in the  $\alpha 2/\beta 4$  loop. These changes can, in turn, be transmitted to  $\alpha 3$  and  $\alpha 4$  through a series of ionic and van der Waals contacts (Fig. 4b). These interhelical contacts provide a contiguous link between the direct effect of the GTP's  $\gamma$ -phos-

phate on the  $\alpha 2$  helix and the effector-binding  $\alpha 3/\beta 5$  and  $\alpha 4/\beta 6$  loops. Many of the structurally observed linkages pictured in Fig. 4b involve residues that are also conserved in effector-targeted heterotrimeric G proteins and are not found in Ras (Fig. 2b), which reflects the importance of these stereochemical relays in the positioning of the three effector modulating loops.

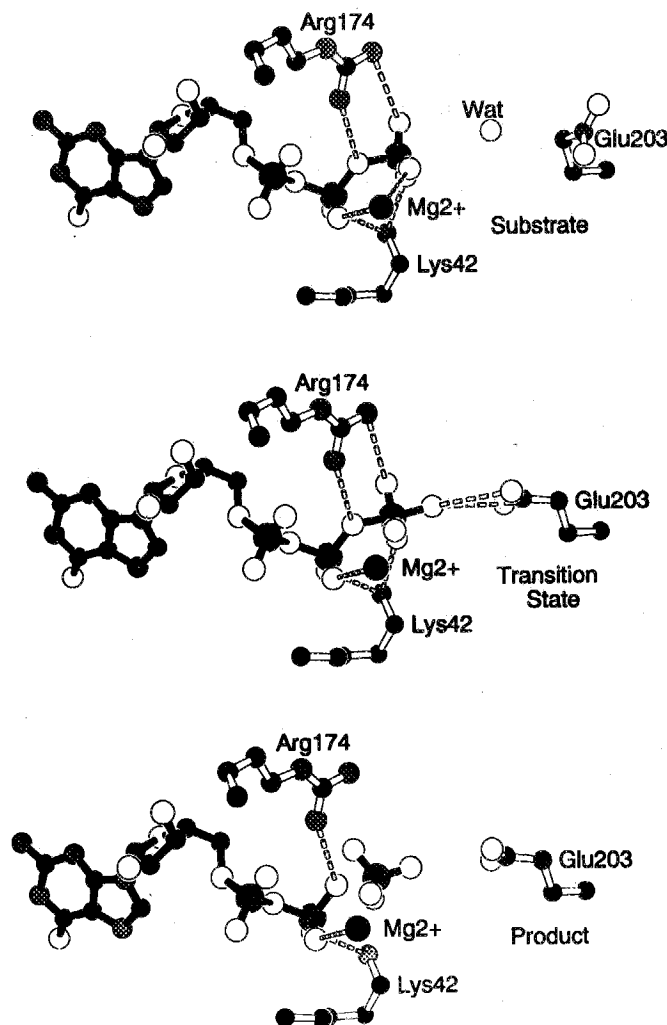


FIG. 5 Proposed catalytic mechanism for  $\beta\gamma$  phosphate hydrolysis. The ground state (substrate), transition state, and products have been modelled to reflect a bound GTP rather than the catalytically resistant GTP $\gamma$ S. The only difference with the observed structure for the substrate is the P-S bond which has been shortened from 1.86 Å to 1.45 Å to reflect a typical P-O bond length. The active site water molecule in the ground state is situated directly in-line with the  $\gamma$ -phosphate, but positioned 3.9 Å away from the phosphorus. This distance is the result of packing constraints imposed on the system by the bulky sulphur atom of the bound inhibitor (van der Waals radii is 1.7 Å versus 1.35 Å for oxygen). In the transition state, the oxygen atom of the crystallographically observed active site water has been moved to within bonding distance of the  $\gamma$  phosphorus. Rotation of Glu 203's C $\beta$ -C $\gamma$  bond places its carboxylate in an ideal position to activate the water molecule by proton abstraction (general base catalysis). In addition, the interactions of the pentacoordinated phosphate with Lys 42, Arg 174 and Mg<sup>2+</sup> serve to neutralize the negative charge developed in the transition state leading to enhanced catalysis through transition state stabilization. In the last step of the reaction (product), the bond between the  $\gamma$ -phosphorus and the bridging oxygen breaks leading to the release of a free phosphate and GDP. The likelihood of a glutamate-activated water molecule serving as the attacking nucleophile in nucleotide hydrolysis has been suggested by Steitz<sup>52</sup>.

**The I2/ $\alpha$ 2/phosphate-binding loop linkage.** One of the most striking stereochemical features of the  $G_{12}$ ·GTP $\gamma$ S structure are the salt bridges that link I2 (residues 226–239) to both the phosphate-binding region (residues 36–43) and  $\alpha$ 2 (Fig. 4c). These linkages probably make the position of an acidic cluster of side chains in the I2 segment (Asp 233, Asp 234 and Glu 235) sensitive to the presence or absence of the nucleotide's  $\gamma$ -phosphate. We speculate that this acidic patch as well as residues Glu 306, Asp 311 and Glu 314 (ref. 33) form an interface involved in binding the highly basic region of the  $\gamma$ -subunit of cGMP-PDE. A peptide corresponding to residues 232–259 binds PDE- $\gamma$  (J. Mills *et al.*, manuscript in preparation). The sequence variability at positions corresponding to Asp 234 and Glu 235 in the heterotrimeric family of  $\alpha$ -subunits suggests that this surface can provide specificity in effector interactions. On the other hand, the conservation of the ionic linkages to the switch II region reflects an important stereochemical connection between GTP binding and potential conformational changes in the I2 region (Fig. 2b).

### GTP hydrolysis

There are two features in this crystal structure relevant to GTP hydrolysis that are not found in the structures of the stable GTP-analogue complexes of Ras<sup>12</sup> and EF-Tu<sup>13</sup>. The first is conserved arginine residue (Arg 174) that contacts the  $\gamma$ -phosphate directly. The second is a candidate for the general base (Glu 203) that triggers the hydrolytic attack. Arg 174 provides hydrogen bonds to the  $\alpha$ - and  $\gamma$ -phosphates and the oxygen bridging the  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -phosphates. These direct contacts are positioned to stabilize the negative charge that develops in the presumed pentacoordinate transition state and thereby facilitate the release of the  $\gamma$ -phosphate from the oxygen bridging the  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -phosphates (Fig. 5). Mutations of the corresponding arginine in  $G_{12}$  (ref. 34) and  $G_{sa}$  (ref. 35) dramatically reduce their respective GTPase activities and constitutively activate their respective target effectors. Also, the guanidino group of this arginine is the target for ADP-ribosylation by cholera toxin, which blocks hydrolysis<sup>18</sup>.

A water molecule is identically positioned to serve as a nucleophile for a direct in-line attack on the  $\gamma$ -phosphate in all three crystallographic representations of the  $G_{12}$ ·GTP $\gamma$ S complex (Fig. 5). This fixed water site is located in the corresponding position in the high-resolution structure of Ras·GMP·PNP<sup>12</sup> and EF-Tu·GMP·PNP<sup>13</sup>. It is likely that this water molecule has a nucleophilic role in the GTPase mechanism, but the structure of Ras has not identified the general base that activates it. In the recently described structure of EF-Tu<sup>13</sup>, a histidine corresponding to Gln 61 in Ras or Gln 200 in  $G_{12}$ , is proposed to move after EF-Tu binds the ribosome in such a way that it is positioned to act as a general base. Although the mutational sensitivity of a corresponding glutamine in Ras and in  $G_{sa}$  subunits implicates it in the GTPase mechanism, this structure and that of Ras offer little in the way of a structural explanation. In  $G_{12}$ , the side-chain carboxylate of Glu 203 is situated so that a rotation of its C $\beta$ –C $\gamma$  bond places the negatively charged carboxylate in a position to abstract a proton and thereby activate the water (Fig. 5). This glutamate is well conserved across the large family of  $G_{sa}$  subunits, which, coupled with our structural information, underscores its functional importance in heterotrimeric G-protein  $\alpha$ -subunits (Fig. 2b). Whereas a corresponding acidic residue is absent in the smaller GTPases such as Ras, Glu 63 in the disordered  $\alpha$ 2 region of Ras (Asp 86 in EF-Tu), corresponding to  $G_{12}$  residue 202, could serve as an alternative general base. In fact, Glu 63 is a site for a GTPase-inhibiting mutation in p21<sup>H<sub>ras</sub></sup> (ref. 36).

Glutamate 203 resides on the  $\alpha$ 2 switch helix of  $G_{12}$  and is homologous to  $\alpha$ 2 of Ras<sup>17</sup> and EF-Tu<sup>13</sup>, whose conformations are also sensitive to the presence or absence of the  $\gamma$ -phosphate. It is interesting to note that most heterotrimeric  $\alpha$ -subunits possess a significantly higher basal GTPase rate than the small GTPases such as Ras<sup>37</sup>. We would argue that the higher GTPase

rates in heterotrimeric G-protein  $\alpha$ -subunits reflects (1) an inherently better-structured  $\alpha$ 2 helix, which provides a properly positioned general base without the aid of a GTPase-activating protein, and (2) the presence of a transition-state-stabilizing interaction with the side chain of a conserved arginine corresponding to Arg 174. As  $\alpha$ 2 is structurally coupled to effector binding sites, Glu 203 could be productively oriented by bound effectors<sup>5,6</sup>.

Finally, we offer an explanation for the resistance to hydrolysis conferred by the  $\gamma$ -thiophosphorothioate. The bulky sulphur atom of GTP $\gamma$ S, identified unequivocally by its appearance in (Fo–Fc) maps and its standard phosphorus–sulphur bond distance (1.86 Å), sterically shields the phosphorus atom from a close approach by the active-site water molecule. Indeed, this prevents the side chain of Glu 203 from assuming the position needed to support in-line attack by the activated water molecule. In addition, it appears from modelling of the pentacoordinate transition state that Arg 174 prevents the thiophosphate from reaching the transition state owing to a steric clash between the firmly anchored guanidino group and the equatorial sulphur atom.

In summary, this study of  $G_{12}$ ·GTP $\gamma$ S is a first step in developing a stereochemical context for a dynamic understanding of G-protein-coupled signal transduction through seven-helix transmembrane receptors and their cognate heterotrimeric G proteins. Until now the structural basis for experiments designed to extract structure/function correlates has been limited to that provided by other GTPases such as Ras and EF-Tu. Whereas  $G_{12}$  shares many nucleotide-binding elements with the larger family of GTPases, its value as a model for G-coupled signal transduction lies in its unique structure/function relationships which are, at best, tenuously extrapolated from the models of Ras and EF-Tu. When viewed in the context of genetic, biochemical and dynamic studies on transducin and similar G-coupled systems, the present crystal structure serves as a necessary but only partial link between the functions of these G proteins and the underlying molecular mechanism by which they operate. Structural work on other complexes will complete and clarify the stereochemical picture. □

Received 3 November; accepted 23 November 1993.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. We thank Z. Otwinowski for his solvent-flattening routine using maximum entropy algorithms and for technical advice during data processing, G. Van Duyne for technical assistance during data collection, Y.-C. Kim for advice during the heavy-atom search, A. Garcia for preparing bovine rod outer segments and J. Mills for preliminary work on lanthanide substitutions in transducin. This work was supported by grants from the NIH to P.B.S. and H.E.H. H.E.H. was also supported by the American Heart Association and Research to Prevent Blindness. J.P.N. was an NSF Chemistry and NIH postdoctoral fellow. The coordinates of the  $G_{\alpha}$ -GTP $\gamma$ S complex will be submitted to the Brookhaven Protein Data Bank.

## LETTERS TO NATURE

## Pulsar motion effect and Geminga's high braking index

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THE pulsar braking index,  $n$ , is a dimensionless quantity describing the rate at which a magnetized neutron star loses rotational energy<sup>1</sup>. It can be determined from pulsar timing measurements, and for distant pulsars is found to lie close to  $n=3$  (ref. 2), as predicted by theoretical models of pulsar emission mechanisms<sup>3–5</sup>. In contrast, the timing parameters—in particular the second derivative of the pulsation frequency—of the nearby pulsar Geminga<sup>6–11</sup> indicate an extremely large braking index of about 10–30. To understand this property of Geminga, we consider here the effect on the measured timing parameters of a pulsar's motion through space. We find that the Doppler effect alone can give a high apparent braking index, but only if the pulsar is very close and has an abnormally high velocity ( $>1,000 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ). A more likely (but related) cause of the high braking index is the pulsar's proper motion: failure to correct for changes in the source coordinates with time can greatly influence the higher derivatives of the pulsar frequency, and lead to an erroneous value of  $n$ . A self-consistent analysis of the timing data, which account for both the proper motion and the Doppler effect, should permit a reliable estimate of the distance to Geminga.

The value of the pulsar braking index,  $n$ , characterizes the dependence of the energy loss of a neutron star on its angular velocity,  $\Omega$  (or frequency  $f=\Omega/2\pi$ ). Energy losses due to magnetic dipole radiation<sup>3,4</sup> or to stellar wind caused by the induced electrical field of the rotating magnetic dipole<sup>5</sup> lead to the dependence  $\dot{E} \propto B^2 \Omega^4$  (where  $E$  is the rotational energy and  $B$  the surface magnetic field of the neutron star). Given that  $E \propto \Omega^2$ , one gets  $\dot{E} \propto \Omega^2$ , which leads to  $\dot{\Omega}/\Omega = 3\dot{f}/f$  and the canonical value of the braking index  $\dot{\Omega}\Omega/\Omega^2 = 3$ . The braking indices for most well studied pulsars are  $<3$  (ref. 2). These pulsars are rather distant and their space motion does not affect significantly their braking indices. Recent X-ray<sup>6</sup> and  $\gamma$ -ray<sup>7–10</sup> observations of the pulsar Geminga (2CG195+04) and an analysis of earlier data from the COS-B satellite<sup>11</sup> gave the following values for frequency  $f_0$  and its first ( $f_1$ ) and second ( $f_2$ ) derivatives:  $f_0 \approx 4.2178 \text{ Hz}$ ,  $f_1 \approx -1.952 \times 10^{-13} \text{ Hz s}^{-1}$ ,  $f_2 = (2.8 \pm 1.6) \times 10^{-25} \text{ Hz s}^{-2}$  (1 $\sigma$  deviation), implying that  $n \approx 10$ –30. To reduce this to the canonical value of the braking index, the value of  $f_2$  would need to be an order of magnitude smaller, that is,  $f_2^* = 3f_1^2/f_0 \approx 2.7 \times 10^{-26} \text{ Hz s}^{-2}$ .

A pulsar's motion in space could potentially influence the observed timing parameters  $f_0$ ,  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  in two ways. The first effect is the well known Doppler effect. The second effect arises when the pulsar's source coordinates (used for making the bary-

centric correction) are incorrect, for example, when they have been measured only once and no information about the proper motion of the source has subsequently been obtained. The second derivative of the frequency,  $f_2$ , is particularly sensitive to the accuracy of the source coordinates.

Consider the influence of the space motion on the braking index in more detail, beginning with the Doppler effect. Let a pulsar with proper frequency  $f$  move with respect to the Earth with a velocity  $v$  at a distance  $l$ . Then the observed pulsar frequency  $f$  is

$$f = \hat{f} \left( 1 + \frac{v}{c} \cos \theta \right) \quad (1)$$

where  $c$  is the speed of light and  $\theta$  is the angle between the pulsar velocity and the direction of propagation of the radiation in the observer's frame. Expanding  $\hat{f}(t)$  and  $f(t)$  to the second order  $\hat{f} = \hat{f}_0 + \hat{f}_1 t + \frac{1}{2} \hat{f}_2 t^2$  and differentiating with respect to time  $t$ , one gets

$$f_0 = \hat{f}_0 \left( 1 + \frac{v}{c} \cos \theta \right) \quad (2)$$

$$f_1 = \hat{f}_1 \left( 1 + \frac{v}{c} \cos \theta \right) - \hat{f}_0 \frac{v^2}{cl} \sin^2 \theta \quad (3)$$

$$f_2 = \hat{f}_2 \left( 1 + \frac{v}{c} \cos \theta \right) - 2\hat{f}_1 \frac{v^2}{cl} \sin^2 \theta - 3\hat{f}_0 \frac{v^3}{cl^2} \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta \quad (4)$$

For realistic values of  $v$ , the term in brackets has little effect on the values of frequency and its derivatives, and we will therefore put it equal to unity. The apparent first derivative  $f_1$  always becomes more negative due to pulsar motion, even if the pulsar has constant proper frequency, as was first noted by Shklovskij<sup>12</sup>. In contrast, the second derivative  $f_2$  will be increased by the Doppler effect if the pulsar moves away from the observer ( $\cos \theta < 0$ ). For typical values of  $v/c \approx 10^{-3}$  (that is, for pulsar velocities of  $\sim 300 \text{ km s}^{-1}$ ) and adopting the measured Geminga values for  $\hat{f}_1$  and  $\hat{f}_2$ , the second term in equation (4) is much less than the third; but both make the apparent value of  $f_2$  higher.

The observer measures an apparent braking index

$$n = \hat{n} \frac{1 + \frac{2}{\hat{n}} \left( \frac{2\tau_d v}{l} \right) \left( \frac{v}{c} \right) \sin^2 \theta - \frac{3}{\hat{n}} \left( \frac{2\tau_d v}{l} \right)^2 \left( \frac{v}{c} \right) \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta}{\left[ 1 + \left( \frac{2\tau_d v}{l} \right) \left( \frac{v}{c} \right) \sin^2 \theta \right]^2} \quad (5)$$

where  $\tau_d \equiv -f_0/2f_1$  is the pulsar dynamical age and  $\hat{n}$  is the true braking index defined in terms of  $\hat{f}_i$ . If the proper values of  $\hat{f}_1$  and  $\hat{f}_2$  are so small that only the second term in equation (3) and the third term in equation (4) are significant, the apparent